ABSTRACT
            A study examined the possible impact of exposure and
attention to news on the differentiation--i.e., variation--in an
individual's attitudes toward different foreign countries. It
hypothesized that increased exposure or attention to news about
countries would covary with increased differentiation in such
attitudes: It also hypothesized that knowledge about countries would
act as a mediator variable that would largely account for any
association between exposure and attitudinal variability. The
hypotheses were examined with survey data from Tuscaloosa County,
Alabama. Subjects, 374 adult residents of Tuscaloosa County, were
interviewed by telephone during middle and late November 1984.
Partial correlation analyses suggested that regular readership of
cosmopolitan newspapers and newsmagazines may increase
differentiation in a person's attitudes toward six countries: Great
Britain, India, Japan, Mexico, the Soviet Union, and Venezuela. As
predicted, the introduction of a control for knowledge about these
countries reduced the association below the criterion for statistical
significance. Analysis of the association of demographic control
variables with differentiation suggested that factors other than
knowledge also may affect the variability of a person's attitudes
about countries. (Three tables of data are included, and 5 detailed
notes and 26 references are attached.) (Author/RAE)

Cosmopolitan media use, knowledge,

and attitudinal differentiation of countries

by

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Abstract

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Social scientists generally agree that the specific content of
attitudes, although perhaps not all factors affecting their extremity,
is learned rather than innate (McGuire, 1973). Therefore, the extent
that an individual's attitudes differ toward various objects within the
same class also is learned, at least in part. For example, a person is
not born with a preference for Chrysler automobiles in comparison to
Fords or Toyotas. Fully explaining an individual's attitudes toward
automobiles requires consideration of his or her knowledge about or
experience with different models, perhaps along with or in interaction
with genetically influenced traits that may affect the extremity of
judgments. One outcome of greater familiarity with a set of objects,
according to common sense, is an increased ability to differentiate
among them, both cognitively and affectively.

Researchers in international communication often have discussed the
potential capacity of the mass media to enhance their audiences'
understanding of nations. Many studies of international news reflect
this perspective. An early example was an International Press Institute
(1953) investigation in which media professionals collaborated with
researchers. In a Mass Media Declaration, member nations of the United
Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization endorsed a
more recent expression of this view (Richstad & Anderson, 1981, pp. 446-
447). Those speaking of understanding often seem to really mean

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sympathetic "understanding": that the media potentially can contribute to more favorable attitudes toward countries in general among their audiences. In fact, evidence suggests that such an effect may occur, at least at times. A survey in Venezuela indicated that an individual's exposure to international news covaried with more favorable attitudes toward a variety of countries (McNelly & Izcaray, 1986). Descriptive data from a survey of the U.S. public indicated that people who are highly attentive to world news have more-favorable attitudes toward foreign countries generally than do less attentive persons (Rielly, 1979, p. 18).

Another effect also is possible. News exposure or attention should lead to increased knowledge, which could in turn increase the differentiation of a person's attitudes toward various countries. Differentiation is the variation in an individual's expressed attitudes toward different members of a stimulus group. It is a type of variance effect, but one that must be distinguished from the one explored in another study of the possible impact of world news (Perry & McNelly, 1988b). Perry and McNelly (1988b) examined whether increases in news attention and exposure may affect the variability in respondent attitudes toward a single country. The basic dependent variable in the earlier study was the variance among people in attitude toward a single object. The present study will use as a dependent variable the variance in an individual person's attitudes toward different objects.

The impact of world news on knowledge seems fairly well established. A number of studies have related increases in knowledge about world affairs, sometimes including knowledge about countries, with greater news exposure and or attention (e.g., Korzenny, del Toro, &

Gaudino, 1987; McNelly & Izcaray, 1986; McNelly, Rush, & Bishop, 1968, Perry & McNelly, 1988a; Robinson, 1967). These same studies, however, indicate that education possibly has a more important effect than does news. What has not been examined is the possible effect of exposure or attention to world news on an individual's xenophobia or xenophilia, general tendencies to hate or love foreign countries, as well as any tendency to feel affectively neutral toward them.

Cognitive complexity theory, with its schema and correction approach, provides a reason for expecting news exposure, attention, and knowledge to affect attitude differentiation. This approach to cognitive processing and structuring is quite old in psychology, going back at least to Woodworth (1938). Numerous formulations of a similar nature have been employed over the years (Hebb, 1949; Kelly, 1955; Maddi, 1968). Recently, social cognition researchers and theorists have shown renewed interest in variations and extensions of this idea (Brewer & Nakamura, 1984; Hale, 1980; Marcus & Zajonc, 1985). The individual is seen as structuring stimuli into schemata or internal representations of various cognitive areas. Each schema contains both individual cognitions and the relationship between those cognitions. As experience increases, the schema is expanded, corrected when necessary, and grows in complexity. The schema becomes more than a collection of cognitive bits, however. It is an integrated whole. Some models add attitudinal aspects to the schema (Abelson & Rosenberg; 1958; Fiske, 1982). We assume that these attitudes result primarily from knowledge.

A new piece of knowledge can add both to the complexity of a schema for a particular country and to its attitudinal valence. Knowledge may be completely new and merely add to the current schema; it may be

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supplementary information that expands and strengthens all or part of a schema; it may be information that requires some degree of change in the schema; or it may be contradictory information requiring substantial modification to the schema.

In addition, new knowledge may carry its own affective component; it may borrow affect from other parts of the schema for a country or from related schemata; and it probably contributes to the overall attitude toward that country. The overall attitude will be a composite of parts, weighted according to their strengths. As schemata for the various countries grow, there are obviously more points of possible attitudinal variation from country to country. The increasing complexity of both the knowledge and attitudinal components should increase the potential differentiation of expressed attitudes toward the countries.

This study will use survey data to examine two hypotheses: that increased exposure and attention to news will be associated with increased differentiation in attitudes toward different countries, and that such a relationship will largely disappear after knowledge about countries is controlled statistically. Knowledge thus is expected to act as a mediator variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Evidence concerning a corollary to these hypotheses, that news exposure and attention covary positively with knowledge of countries, also will be presented.

Method

Data for the present study were gathered by telephone interviews with 374 adult residents of Tuscaloosa County, Alabama, during middle and late November 1984. The county contains a diverse population, including large numbers of college-educated professionals, blue-collar

workers, and farmers. A stage-two, random-digit dialing procedure was used. Interviewers, including students in a graduate research methods class and employees of the Capstone Poll at the University of Alabama, used a randomized grid sheet to select respondents within households. The response rate, calculated by dividing the number of completed interviews by the number of eligible households contacted, was 64%.

The dependent variable consisted of the mean absolute deviation[1] of each person's attitudes toward the six nations included in the data set: Great Britain, India, Japan, Mexico, the Soviet Union, and Venezuela. For each nation, a range of 0 to 100 was used, with 0 representing an extremely unfavorable general attitude toward the country and 100 a very favorable one. This measure is an adaptation to telephone survey research of a similar "feeling thermometer" used for years by the Chicago Council on Foreign Relations and the Gallup Organization to measure attitudes toward countries in personal interviews (e.g., Rielly, 1979, 1987). Cases that had missing data on one or more of the six attitude items were not used in analyses.

For each individual, we began construction of the dependent variable by taking the average of the person's attitudes toward the six countries. For example, if a person rated Great Britain as an 80, India as a 50, Japan as a 60, Mexico as a 55, the Soviet Union as a 40, and Venezuela as a 45, the person's mean rating was a 55. The absolute deviations, by country, were 25 for Britain, 5 for both India and Japan, 0 for Mexico, 15 for the Soviet Union, and 10 for Venezuela. The person therefore had an average deviation of 10.

In all analyses, controls include age, gender, education, and income. Age was measured in years. For gender, female was coded 1 and

male 0. For education, a code corresponding to the number of years completed was used for persons reporting 0 to 12 years. Persons reporting junior college or trade school as their highest level received a 13. Respondents reporting at least one year of college received a 14, those reporting some graduate or law school received a 15, and those with law degrees or doctorates received a 16. Income was measured as a discrete value ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 6, depending upon the respondent's family income bracket.

We initially considered five independent variables for our analyses. Operationalizations included the number of days per week that a respondent reported reading a newspaper (newspaper exposure) and the number of days per week of reported television news (television news exposure) and network television news (network television news exposure) viewership. In addition, respondents were questioned about which newspapers and newsmagazines they read, and a measure of cosmopolitan media use (McNelly, Rush, & Bishop, 1968) was constructed from these responses. A respondent received a 1 if she or he reported regular'y reading either one of three newsmagazines or a newspaper with a substantial amount of world news. In addition to Time, Newsweek, or U.S. News and World Report, cosmopolitan media included the New York Times, the Washington Post, the Atlanta Constitution, the Christian Science Monitor, and the Wall Street Journal.

The final independent variable consisted of respondents' reported level of attention to news about countries. We constructed it by adding a person's response to eight questionnaire items. A 0-to-100 range was used for self-reported attention to news about each country, with high scores indicating high attention levels. The data set also included

measures of attention to news about other countries and to n_._

involving the United States and other countries, using the same range.

Cronbach's alpha for the attention index was .85. For all control and

independent variables, means were substituted for missing data.

Knowledge about the six countries was used as a mediator variable.

To measure it, respondents were given the name of the political leaders

of the six countries and were asked to name the country of each. They

also were asked to recall the capital of each nation. Respondents

received a code of 1 for a correct answer to each question, and those

with incorrect answers received a 0. For each respondent, the number of

correct responses was summed, creating a scale ranging from 0 to 12.

Cronbach's alpha for the knowledge measure was .87.

Hierarchical regression/correlation analysis was used to examine

the data. Preliminary analyses explored all possible quadratic

relations between variables and attitudinal differentiation. In

instances in which a quadratic term attained significance, a cubic

(i.e., a curve with two bends in it) relation also was examined.

Because we stated directional hypotheses, we used one-tailed tests to

examine any relationship between the news exposure, attention, or

knowledge variables and the differentiation dependent variable. We also

used one-tailed tests for relations between the news variables and

knowledge. Two-tailed tests were used with all control and quadratic or

cubic variables.

Results

Data analyses reported here used information from the 331 persons

who responded to each of the six country attitude items. Preliminary

analysis indicated that a quadratic, but not cubic, relationship existed

between education and attitudinal differentiation, but no other quadratic variable attained significance. Therefore, we standardized education and multiplied it by itself, creating a first-order polynomial. To lessen bicollinearity between the original education measure and its square, we also used a standardized linear term for education (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, p. 238). A change of scale does not affect the significance of the polynomial.

Table 1 contains the means and standard deviations for respondents on the variables used in analyses, as well as the original country attitude measures. It indicates that the average respondent was about 39 years of age, and about 53% of participants were female. Not surprisingly, respondents expressed the most favorable attitudes toward Great Britain and the least favorable attitudes toward the Soviet Union. Table 2 contains the zero-order correlation matrix for the variables used. The largest correlation occurred between the standardized education measure and its square. Its value, -.65, is an artifact of the scale used to measure education, as well as the distribution of education (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, pp. 237-238). The associations between the quadratic term and other variables, but not the part. associations with a control for the linear education term, also change, depending upon whether the quadratic measure is computed from a standardized or unstandardized linear education term. Other relatively large correlations occurred between education and knowledge (.57) and between television news exposure and network news exposure (.52).

Tables 1 and 2 About Here

The criteria set by Baron and Kenny (1986, pp. 1176-1177) for

testing hypotheses involving mediator variables guided our data analyses. First, one must show that an independent variable (i.e., news exposure or attention) significantly covaries with a presumed mediator (i.e., knowledge of countries). Second, an independent variable should covary significantly with the dependent variable (i.e., differentiation). Third, the mediator must relate significantly with a dependent variable. Finally, introduction of a control for the mediator should reduce the covariation between the independent and dependent variables below significance.

Regarding the first criterion, we tested a partial correlation between each news measure and knowledge, controlling for age, gender, income, and education. Only the coefficients for cosmopolitan media use (partial $r = .21$) and news attention (partial $r = .27$) attained significance. Therefore, only these two are likely to affect knowledge. The nonsignificant partial correlations were: newspaper exposure, .05; television news exposure, -.01; and network news exposure, .03.

We examined the second criterion by testing partial correlation coefficients between each individual news variable and attitudinal differentiation, controlling for age, gender, income, education, and the education polynomial. Only cosmopolitan media use covaried with the dispersion of attitudes (partial $r = .11$). Persons reporting regular use of these media expressed significantly more-differentiated attitudes towards the six countries than did persons not reporting such use. Nonsignificant partial correlations were: newspaper exposure, .05; television news exposure, .01; network news exposure, -.02; and attention, .04.

These preliminary results suggested that only cosmopolitan media

use may have the hypotherized effect, and we focused our analysis on it.
Table 3 contains the results of the hierarchical regression/correlation
analysis of attitudinal differentiation on variables added in four
steps: the linear controls, the education polynomial, cosmopolitan
media use, and knowledge about countries, in that order. The table
contains partial correlation coefficients, which are more meaningful
than standardized regression coefficients for the polynomial term, as
well as the increment to explained variation for each step.

Table 3 About Here

Among the control variables, nothing is reported for education
beyo the first step. In an equation containing its quadratic term,
the sign, significance, and size of the linear education term is
meaningless (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, p. 229). Cf the variables entered in
step one, gender and income attained significance. Males expressed more
differentiated attitudes than did females, and as a person's family
income increased, so did the dispersion of her or his attitudes toward
countries. The education polynomial attained significance in step 2.
An examination of mean levels of dispersion within each educational
level indicated that dispersion increased along with education for those
completing up to about grade 11. It then remained relatively constant
from grade 11 through those reporting some college and trailed off for
those reporting some training in graduate or law school or graduate/law
degrees. This basic pattern did not change in equations containing the
variables added in later steps. With the education polynomial in the
equation, age also attained significance, indicating that as age
increased, so did dispersion. The variables added in steps 3 and 4

reduced age below significance, but did not affect the significance of other controls.[2]

The third and fourth steps in Table 3 are crucial to examining the study's hypotheses. When entered in step 3, cosmopolitan media use attained significance, as indicated above. Step 4 contains information concerning the final two criteria of Baron and Kenny (1986). As anticipated, the introduction of knowledge about countries in step 4 eliminated the significant relationship between cosmopolitan media use and dispersion, and knowledge itself attained significance. As it increased, so did attitudinal differentiation.[3]   Total explained variation for the full equation was about 11%.

An examination of unstandardized partial regression coefficients often is considered more desirable for interpreting the magnitude of the relationship between an independent variable and an intuitively meaningful dependent variable than are measures of explained variation (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, pp. 366-367; King, 1986). The unstandardized partial regression coefficient for cosmopolitan media use at step 3 (not shown) predicts that a cosmopolitan media user would have a mean deviation of 2 units greater than would a non-user, all else being equal. For example, consider a non-user with an average attitude of 50 and a predicted mean deviation of 12 who gave a rating of 62 to Japan and 38 to Venezuela. If that same person had reported use of one of these sources, he or she would have a predicted mean deviation of 14, perhaps also suggesting ratings of 64 for Japan and 36 for Venezuela. The unstandardized partial coefficient for knowledge at step 4 predicts that the difference between persons at the low and high extremes of knowledge would be an increase in the mean deviation of about 7 units

for the most knowledgeable, all else remaining equal. With knowledge in
the equation, the coefficient for cosmopolitan media use was reduced to
1.5.

Discussion

This paper used survey research to examine whether increases in
news exposure or attention appear to lead to increased differentiation
in people's attitudes toward various countries. It also hypothesized
that knowledge about countries would mediate between exposure and
differentiation and that, when controlled, knowledge would largely
eliminate any relation between them. Correlational analyses appeared to
corroborate both hypotheses for one exposure measure, cosmopolitan media
use. In addition, analyses suggested that general exposure to
newspapers, to television news, or to network news may not affect the
spread of attitudes simply because people do not acquire knowledge about
countries merely from exposure to these media. Of course, cosmopolitan
media were so designated precisely because they contain large amounts of
world news.

Based upon its unstandardized partial regression coefficient and
amount of explained variation, the impact of cosmopolitan media use on
differentiation appears to be rather modest, however. This is not
especially surprising, given the large number of other factors that
might affect both knowledge and differentiation and given the dichotomy
used to measure use of cosmopolitan media. The effect of knowledge
about countries appears to be at least moderate, however, given the
magnitude of predicted difference in differentiation between the least
and most knowledgeable.

Although the control for knowledge reduced the relationship between

cosmopolitan media use and differentiation below our criterion for
significance, it did not eliminate it descriptively. That is to say,
the control merely made a null relation in the population appear
plausible. Perhaps a measure that reflected knowledge of
characteristics of countries in addition to capitals and leaders would
further reduce the already nonsignificant correlation between these
variables.[4] On the other hand, cosmopolitan media use may affect an
individual's differentiation even when a person cannot later recall the
informational contents of such media. For example, a newsmagazine
article may contribute to an enduring attitude about Venezuela even
though the reader later cannot identify any specific facts from the
article. In some cases, a person may store only affective impressions
and not information in long-term memory.

Some other anomolous findings require comment. The evidence
suggesting that attention to news about countries relates positively
with knowledge but not with attitudinal variation was especially
puzzling, initially. Thus, knowledge acquired from news may not always
affect differentiation. Explaining why may require recognizing that the
attention measure reflected news in general, including television.
Although a number of studies have indicated that mere <u>exposure to
television news</u> does little to enhance a person's public-affairs
knowledge, <u>attention to televised news</u> apparently contributes more
substantially (Chaffee & Schleuder, 1986). Therefore, attention to news
about countries in either print or electronic media is likely to affect
basic forms of knowledge about countries. Only the in-depth coverage
provided by cosmopolitan print media, and not the rudimentary content of
most television news, may affect the spread of attitudes, however. The

association of attention with differentiation perhaps did not attain significance because the measure used failed to distinguish between attention to different news media.

Given the large zero-order correlation between education and knowledge (see Table 2), the quadratic relationship between education and attitudinal variation also seemed puzzling. In retrospect, with our hypotheses, one might have anticipated that education would covary linearly with differentiation, with knowledge intervening as it evidently did with cosmopolitan media use. One partial explanation for the polynomial relationship comes from complexity theory in social psychology (Anderson, 1981; Kelly, 1955), which could suggest a curvilinear effect of experience on differentiation. Cognitive or affective impressions about nations that are related to the early years of education are likely to result in greater attitude change than will later ones because they potentially represent a much higher component of a person's attitudes about countries. As education increases, additional impressions are likely to have less opportunity to affect either attitudes per se or their differentiation. Based solely upon this, one might expect to observe a curvilinear but always monotonic impact of knowledge[5] on differentiation and a similar effect of education that disappeared with knowledge in the equation. The fact that we used only very basic measures of knowledge may explain why analyses with knowledge held constant still suggested a positive relationship between education and differentiation as one moved from low to moderate educational levels. That differentiation actually went down for those at the highest educational levels is likely due to factors other than knowledge. We suspect that cognitive skills or attitudes

associated with higher education gradually counteract, and eventually
overtake, any impact of the impressions about nations that an individual
acquires as a result of increased education. Regardless of their actual
knowledge levels, perhaps both highly and moderately educated persons
are able to differentiate among countries, but the highly educated may
see countries in somewhat less-polarized terms.

One alternate explanation for the relationship between knowledge
and attitudes that might be raised comes from a possible response set.
Individuals with less knowledge may be more uncertain in their ratings
and therefore avoid extremes by clustering their ratings toward some
perceived norm. On the other hand, a cognitive complexity approach
would predict, to some extent, such clustering, as well. Individuals
would logically employ a conservative attitudinal approach out of their
lack of knowledge; thus their expressed attitudes would reflect their
limited knowledge and the relatively weak attitudinal valences already
attached to that knowledge.

The evidence that, with knowledge held constant, men have more
differentiated attitudes than do women and dispersion increases along
with family income also suggests that variables other than knowledge
affect our dependent variable. In addition to verbal communication,
McGuire (1973) suggests that physiology and direct experience with an
object also may affect aspects of attitudes. Perhaps personality
characteristics account for the difference between gender groups. Those
persons with higher income possibly have more differentiated attitudes
because they have developed impressions as a result of travel to foreign
countries, or by interaction with travelers or foreign natives, as well
as from news-related knowledge acquisition.

One implication of this research relates to claims that news contributes to audience stereotypes of foreign countries. It calls into doubt any idea that world news generally will make people evaluate different nations more similarly--i.e., that news will promote xenophobia or xenophilia. On the other hand, the six countries used in the survey were chosen because they represent a broad range of nations, including developing, developed, Communist, and Western ones. In some instances, exposure to specific forms of news actually may reduce differentiation about similarly described countries. For example, when military forces controlled both Chile and Argentina, exposure to news that stressed this commonality might have led people to partially disregard their knowledge about any differences between the two and to base affective judgments on the common feature. We would expect the pattern reported here to hold, however, for foreign countries in general and for most forms of news in cosmopolitan media.

The complaints that Western-dominated media channels underrepresent news from Third World countries (Masmoudi, 1979) also suggest a possible boundary for the hypothesized relationship between cosmopolitan media use and differentiation. Use of cosmopolitan media may result in differentiated attitudes toward only those nations that are widely covered in them. All of the nations used in this analysis, except Venezuela, had received substantial coverage in the months and years prior to data collection. A lot of material appeared about India following the Indira Gandhi assassination, for example, and economic difficulties led to coverage of Mexico.

In summary, this study has presented correlational evidence suggesting that exposure to cosmopolitan print media does increase the

differentiation in a person's attitudes toward different foreign
countries, with knowledge about countries acting as a mediator variable
that at least partly accounts for any such relationship. Additional
evidence also suggests that factors other than knowledge also affect
attitudinal differentiation.

Notes

[1]In addition to the mean absolute deviation, we considered using the population standard deviation or variance as possible measures of attitudinal differentiation. We selected the mean deviation for three reasons. It was the most normally distributed of the three (kurtosis = -.017; skewness = .041; with a 0 for both indicating the normal distribution), a desirable characteristic for data analysis. Evidently as a result, it covaried most strongly with the control, independent, and mediator variables. Finally, it has the most readily interpretable intuitive meaning. These indicated to us that is was clearly the most valid of the three. We rejected the idea of using the range as an indicator of differentiation because it would reflect only differences in attitudes toward two of the six countries.

[2]As Table 3 indicates, use of the quadratic term resulted in a suppression effect that generally increased slightly the correlation between differentiation and the other variables. By repeating the analysis without the quadratic term, however, we learned that any suppression did not affect the significance of any variable at any step, except that age became significant at step 2, with the polynomial term. In this hierarchical analysis, the use of a quadratic control variable is equivalent to using a power polynomial as a covariate in an analysis of covariance (cf. Cohen & Cohen, 1983, pp. 394-396).

[3]The addition of controls for attention and the other news exposure measures did not in any way influence the significance or nonsignificance of cosmopolitan media usage or knowledge. The use of one-tailed, instead of two-tailed, significance tests for directional hypotheses also made no difference.

[4]In addition to knowledge of leaders and of capitals, this data set contained measures of the ability of a respondent to infer the per-capita income and population of the six countries after receiving such figures for the United States. Adding these to the knowledge measure only reduced the unstandardized coefficient and the partial correlation for cosmopolitan media use fractionally more than did the simpler scale, however.

[5]When we added a first-order polynomial for knowledge to the full equation in Table 3, the polynomial did not attain significance ($p = .137$, two-tailed). Examination of predicted values nonetheless indicated the pattern suggested by complexity theory. That is to say, increasing knowledge by one unit always implied more differentiation, but to a lesser degree as one moved up the knowledge scale.

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Table 1

Me<u>ns and Standard Deviations for Socio-demographics, News Variables,</u>

<u>Knowledge about Countries, Attitudinal Differentiation about Nations,</u>

<u>and Attitudes toward Individual Countries.</u>

	— —	SD	N
Age	38.84	16.32	330
Gender	.53	.50	331
Education	.00	1.00	328
Income	2.91	1.57	322
Education^2	1.00	2.74	328
Newspaper Exposure	4.75	2.56	331
Television News Exposure	5.22	2.14	331
Cosmopolitan Media Use	.33	.47	329
Network News Exposure	3.35	2.42	327
Attention	400.8$	154.85	322
Knowledge	5.50	3.57	331
Attitudinal Differentiation	18.74	8.64	331
Attitude:			
toward Great Britain	73.36	25.28	331
toward India	41.29	23.61	331
toward Japan	64.62	25.59	331
toward Mexico	53.98	26.36	331
toward the Soviet Union	26.73	25.84	331
toward Venezuela	44.02	22.41	331

<u>Note.</u> The figures reported here reflect the 331 respondents expressing

attitudes about all six countries.

Table 2

Zero-order Correlations between Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Age (1)											
Gender (2)	.15										
Education (3)	-.24	-.08									
Income (4)	-.05	-.08	.40								
Education^2 (5)	.22	-.07	-.65	-.15							
Newspaper Exposure (6)	.35	.08	.13	.19	-.08						
Television News Exposure (7)	.22	.06	-.04	.03	-.04	.18					
Cosmopolitan Media Use (8)	-.04	-.13	.24	.19	-.05	.21	.02				
Network News Exposure (9)	.28	.10	.01	.06	-.03	.15	.52	.07			
Attention (10)	.06	-.03	.22	.04	-.11	.08	.12	.21	.16		
Knowledge (11)	-.03	-.15	.57	.37	-.20	.17	-.01	.32	.06	.34	
Differentiation (12)	.05	-.14	.09	.17	-.13	.11	.04	.14	.01	.06	.19

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression/Correlation Analysis of Attitudinal

Differentiation by Control Variables, Cosmopolitan Media Use,

and Knowledge about Countries.

	Step			
Independent Variables	1	2	3	4
Age	.09	.10*	.10	.08
Gender	-.14*	-.17*	-.16*	-.15*
Education	.04	n.a.	n.a.	⁻n.a.
Income	.13*	.16*	.15*	.13*
Education^2		-.16*	-.17*	-.20*
Cosmopolitan Media Use			.11*	.08
Knowledge				.14*
(Increment to R^2)	(.057)*	(.024)*	(.011)*	(.019)*

Note. The nonparenthesized entries are partial correlation coefficients,
with controls for variables entered in all previous steps and in a
given step. The increments to explained variation, in parentheses,
represent each step.

*$p < .05$.